Gender Equity in EFL Classroom Teacher-Pupil Interactions in a Public School System in Addis Ababa

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' attention in mixed-sex EFL classrooms focusing on the frequency and length of utterances in academic and non-academic moves, display and referential questions, student responding moves, etc. through textual analysis of video recorded lessons. The subjects were grade 10 Bole Senior Secondary School regular students. The study employed the textual analysis approach based on the application of Sinclair and Coulthard IRF model. Six EFL lessons taught by three female and three male teachers were transcribed, analyzed and the basic questions were coded into the adapted model. There were 276 (150 female and 126 male) students, aged 16-17 in the classrooms observed. The observation data were described both quantitatively and qualitatively, and were described in terms of the amount of share male/female students received. This means that attempts were made to determine whether male or female students received as much teacher attention as or more or less attention than the share they deserved. These figures were further statistically analyzed using chi-square and the t-test methods. The chi-square test was used to determine the differential significance level of male and/or female teachers' attention to male and female students. The t-test was employed to examine the significance difference in interaction in length of utterances and the teacher's wait time with male or female students. The findings indicated that male teachers paid more attention to male students in the instances of academic moves. Female teachers, however, paid more attention to male students only in the amount of non-academic moves. In all other cases, female teachers paid equal attention to male and female students.

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Introduction

Since recent times gender has become an important area of theoretical, pedagogical, and research interest, not to mention the host of other spheres that have sprung out of this interesting field. In the broader area of education studies of gender in textbooks, syllabus, curriculum, and pedagogy have come up with a substantial body of knowledge. In English as a foreign language, there is a growing interest and volume of research on a wide spectrum of issues revolving around gender. For example, studies carried out on classroom participation (Abera, 2007), teacher attitude (Yoseph, 2007), performance (Kibrework, 2007), and testing (Abebech, 2007) are a few to be mentioned.

None of these studies investigated teacher and learner behaviors in interaction from the point of view of teacher initiation (in terms of the academic and non-academic moves and the question types directed to male and female students), student responding moves, teacher feedback (in terms of the affective and cognitive feedback) and teacher wait time focusing on the frequency and length of interaction. Thus, the present study attempted to fill this gap by answering the following research questions.

1. Do Bole Senior Secondary School (BSSS) grade 10 EFL teachers (male/female) give equal attention to male and female students in the teacher-learner/ learner-teacher interaction patterns in terms of the IRF moves of the Sinclair and Coulthard model?

    1.1 Do the instances of male/female teachers' academic and non-academic initiating moves vary with learner gender?
    1.2 Do the lengths of utterances of male/female teachers vary with male and female students?
    1.3 Do the instances and length of utterances of male/female teachers' questions (i.e., display and referential) vary with the gender of the learner?

1.4 Do students (male/female) get equal attention (i.e. in both frequency of chance to answer and length of utterances) to respond to male and female teachers' questions in the responding move?
1.5 Do the instances of affective feedback male/female teachers give vary between male and female students?
1.6 How long are the male/female teachers' affective feedback to the male/female students on their responses to the initiating moves?
1.7 Do the instances and lengths of cognitive feedback vary with the gender of the learner?
1.8 Do male/female teachers give equal wait-time male and female students to respond to the questions directed to the students?

Operational Definitions

Academic move- any move (in interaction by teacher or learner) that is concerned with the content of the lesson.
Actual share –the share that male/female students received in the interaction made.
Affective feedback – feedback provided to encourage/discourage the learner's responding behavior.
Attention – teacher's concern about male and female students in asking question, giving feedback, etc. (synonymously used with interaction).
Cognitive feedback – feedback meant to focus on target language form.
Display question – questions whose answers the teacher knows.
Fair share – the proportion of male/female students involved in the interaction.
Initiation – starting communication/talk in interaction.
Non-academic – any move (in interaction by a teacher or a learner) that is not concerned with the content of the lesson.
Share – the frequency of interaction male/female students get.
Interaction- is the reciprocal effect produced by teacher and learner and learner and learner.
Gender equity- is gender justice in access to opportunities

Abbreviations

AC – academic move
+AF – Positive affective feedback
- AF – negative affective feedback
Acc – acceptance
acknowl-acknowledge
b – bid
BQ_1 – basic question one
BQ_2 - basic question two
BSSS – Bole Senior Secondary School
+CF – positive cognitive feedback
+CFFS – positive cognitive feed back given to female students
+CFMS – positive cognitive feedback given to male students
-CFFS- negative cognitive feedback given to female students
-CFMS- negative cognitive feedback given to male students
Con- conclusion
Com-comment
d- directive
DQ- display question
DQs- display questions
EFL- English as a foreign language
ESL- English as a second language
El- elicting
L- length
I-Initiation
i- informing
f- frequency/ focusing/ framing
fe- frequency expected
fo– frequency observed
FS- female student
FSA – female student average
FSH – female student high achiever
FSL–female student low achiever
FT – Female teacher
FT_1 – female teacher one
FT_2 – female teacher two
FT_3 – female teacher three
L- loop
M- marker
MT- male teacher
MT_1- male teacher one
MT_2- male teacher two
MT_3- male teacher three
n-nominating
p- prompt
R- Responding move
RQ- referential question
RQs- referential questions
S- Starter
SR- student response
TWT- Total wait time
WT- Wait time

Review of Related Literature

Classroom Interaction and Studies on Interactional Analysis

Classrooms are places where teacher and learner and learner and learner produce a reciprocal effect upon each other through what they say and do (Malamah-Thomas, 1987). This reciprocal effect is referred to as *interaction*. Classroom interaction serves an enabling function, and its only purpose is creating conditions for teaching and learning to take place some way. And it creates a climate, be it inviting and encouraging or discouraging and chilly to some or whole group of students.

To put the importance of classroom interactional analysis forward, it would be preferable to quote what Malamah–Thomas (1987, p. vii) writes:

> whatever pedagogic approach is taken, it is the interaction of the classroom, the assumption and assignment of different kinds of participant role, which mediates between teaching and learning. It is therefore of crucial importance that the factors that enter into this interaction should be subjected to careful and critical examination and their implication for pedagogic practice explored in the context of actual classroom.

Roughly speaking, the above-quoted idea makes clear that the participant-related factors, which come into play in the process of teaching and learning, need to be examined.

The research into whole-class interaction gained momentum in the late 1960s (Howe, 1997). When the issue of classroom interaction is raised in the context of the whole class, we are taking into account the teacher and learner roles. This is because everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). There is the involvement of teachers and learners in managing many things at the same time, including who gets the chance to

speak, what they should speak about, what each participant does with different opportunities to speak and what sort of classroom atmosphere is created by learners and the teacher.

As reviewed in different sources (see Hussen and Postlethwaite, 1994; Malamah-Thomas, 1987; Allwright, 1988; Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Perrot, 1982), methodologically both observational instruments and questionnaires have been used to study the classroom environment and several structured observational schedules for coding classroom communication and events have been developed. One of the most widely known is Flanders' Interactional Analysis System (FIAS) which records classroom behavior at three second intervals using 10 categories (e.g. praising and encouraging, asking questions, student-initiated talk). The one that is similar to Flanders system is the system called Flint, developed by Miskowitz for analyzing foreign language classroom interaction. It is an expansion and modification of the original Flanders' Interactional categories raised above.

There is also an instrument developed by Mendley and Mitzel called OSCAR (Observational Schedule and Record) that includes 14 categories (e.g. pupil leadership activities, manifest teacher hostility, emotional climate, verbal emphasis, and social organization). Other systematic observation schemes are Emmer Observation, the Brophy – Good Dyadic Interaction System, and Blumfeld and Miller's method of coding vocabulary. Thus, since the 1960s /1970s, numerous questionnaires have been developed to assess student perceptions of their classroom environments. One of the most widely used questionnaires, the *Learning Environment Inventory*, was developed as part of the research and evaluation activities of Harvard Project on Physics. Another is the *Classroom Environment Scale* developed by Hussen and Postlethwaite, 1994.

Simon and Boyer (1967), cited in AbdulKadir (1983) have also seen classroom observation schedules as three related systems. The first system is referred to as the *affective* system. The affective system deals with the emotional climate of the classroom and how it is conditioned by teacher

reactions to pupils' feelings, ideas, or actions. The second system called the *cognitive* system is concerned with the thinking processes and verbal patterns used to deal with them. The *composite* or *multidimensional* system deals with both cognitive and affective dimensions of behavior.

Bellack and his associates saw classroom interaction as a social 'game'. Tamene (2000), quoting Bellack et al. (1966) indicates that there are four categories in the teacher and learner verbal behaviors in the interaction. These categories are called pedagogical moves and described as *structuring, soliciting, responding*, and *reacting* moves. Thus, these four pedagogical moves are the basic components of interactional analysis for Bellack and his research colleagues.

The last review of interactional models is the one developed by Sinclair and Coulthard originally in 1975 and revised in 1992 and1995 (Farooq, 2000; Malouf, 1995; Atkins, 2001). This theory has been used to create a model for spoken discourse analysis. Malouf (1995) pointed out that the strongest effort to actually implement Halliday's ideas in a well grounded, descriptively adequate theory of discourse has been made by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992). The model is developed as a tool for systematic study of classroom discourse, concentrating mainly on interactions between the teacher and individual students.

Like Halliday's model, it is also a rank scale model and consists of five ranks. These are lesson, transactio*n, exchange, move* and *act.* All are related to one another (Willis, 1992 cited in Atkins, 2001). The ranks are hierarchical in nature with *lesson* being the largest unit and *act* the smallest. Sinclair and Coulthard identify twenty-one different classes of *act*, which combine to make the five classes of *move*. These are framing and focusing moves, which combine to make boundary exchanges and opening, responding and follow-up moves, which combine to make teaching exchanges. A number of these exchanges combine to make transactions, which combine to make the lesson. Atkins (2001) provides us with a useful diagrammatic representation of the Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) model, which the present

researcher has adapted and modified slightly for the purpose of this study. This shows the hierarchical nature of the model and some of the different categories available to the analyst. As Atkins indicated, a number of scholars (for example, Brazil and Coulthard, 1992; Coulthard, 1992; Farooq, 2000; Francis and Hunston, 1992) accounted for discourse patterns in telephone and casual conversations.

Transactions do not have structure, expressed in terms of exchanges. The boundaries of transactions are typically marked by frames whose realizations at the level of form is largely limited to words like *ok, well, right, now* and *good* uttered with strong stress, highly falling intonation, followed by short pauses.

Gender and Teacher Attention in ESL Classroom Interaction

Studies (e.g. Yepez, 1994) indicate that little is known about teacher's attention in teacher-initiated and student-initiated interactions. Sunderland (1994) indicates that initial attempts as regards teacher's attention in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) classrooms were made by Yepez (1990). She (1994, p. 150) notes:

> Yepez (1990) observed three male and four female teachers of adult learners of ESL and found that six of seven showed equitable behavior to male and female students... this was the only work on teacher–male student/teacher-female student interaction in language classrooms I was able to find.

In the study by Yepez (1990), as Sunderland points out, one teacher showed gender discriminatory behavior in the ESL classroom. Yepez, in her later study on observation of *Gender-specific Teacher Behavior in ESL Classrooms* (1994) observed four ESL classes of 66 students taught by two male and two female teachers. The study examined teacher behavior from the point of view of teacher praise, remediation, and criticism. The result of

Yepez's study revealed that three of the teachers showed equitable behavior to male and female students in ESL classes. Yepez used INTERSECT (Interactions for Sex Equity in Classroom Teaching) which Sadker, Sadker and Bauner developed in 1982. She analyzed the gender discriminations in teachers' classroom interactions by counting each teacher-initiated interaction with male, female, or with the class as a whole.

Yepez indicated that the inter-rater reliability with the instrument was established after three observations of the actual ESL classes by the researcher and her research assistant. But Farooq (2000) argues that, first, the study by Yepez (1994) does not clearly show the researcher and the assistant in real time coding differentiated between teacher-student (boy or girl) and teacher-class (boy or girl) interactions. Second, the instrument is unable to decide the boundaries of the interactions (i.e. beginning and end). This is because the instrument does not code interaction length. Overall, the Farooq researcher argues that, in Yepez's study, it is not clear what criterion was employed to make a decision on the different interactions with confidence. Farooq further argued that the categories used in Yepez's study without being modified, though originally they were not designed for the ESL related research. Interview was another instrument Yepez used to collect data on teachers' perceptions of their interaction patterns with male and female students and how they felt about the result of the study.

Teacher Attention in Mixed Sex EFL Classrooms

Murphy (1980) cited in Sunderland (1994) pointed out that language is seen as girls' subject in many countries. Sunderland (1994, p. 150), thus, raises this point:

> If girls are believed to be better language learners, or actually are …, might this not lead to different interaction patterns in language classrooms? Girls might, for example, be asked more challenging questions than the boys, or might be spoken to by the teacher- or might get his or her attention- as much as, not more than, the boys.

This point, thus, indicates that an investigation of classroom interaction in foreign languages is important. To do this, Sunderland (1994) studied whether the differential gender treatment in non-EFL classrooms may occur in EFL classrooms using EFL students' and teachers' own perspectives. She also looked for reasons for differential treatment. She used a questionnaire of twenty-six items to collect data from four groups of respondents (i.e. seven students, three females and four males of different nationalities improving their English; 18 Austrian trainee teachers (mostly females); 39 Greek trainee EFL teachers, all females; 18 practicing Japanese EFL teachers, mostly males) at the Institute of English language Education of Lancaster University. From the study, Sunderland found out that "teachers in EFL classrooms seem to treat their male and female students differently and to do so in a range of ways which vary from culture to culture" (p. 152). She reported that the study showed similar results as the case in studies of non-EFL classrooms, though it is not detailed because of lack of systematicity.

Sunderland (1998) claims that her own study carried out in 1996 and Webster's (1993) study are the first two studies that explored, for the first time, teachers' attention in mixed sex classes in foreign languages classrooms. Sunderland (1996), cited in Sunderland 1998, pointed out that Webster examined two 45-minute lessons of a French class in a British comprehensive school that had 13 boys and 12 girls aged 11-12 years. According to Sunderland (1998), Webster recorded and transcribed classroom data and reported that the boys received more teachers solicits than the girls.

A review of Sunderland's (1996) study, (see Sunderland 1998), focused on 12 German lessons of a class taught by a female native German teacher in a great detail. There were 14 boys and 13 girls (aged 11-12) in the classes selected for the study. Farooq (2000, p.17) comments on Sunderland's (1996) work as follows also writes,

> In this detailed, [Sunderland 1996] laborious and time-consuming study, the researcher the researcher [Sunderland] reported findings relating to gender differences and differential-teacher treatment both in teacher-student and student-teacher interactions. The focus was on the teacher discourse and the student discourse both in terms of the quantity and the discourse types. The teacher discourse grossly comprised academic (i.e. related to the contents of the lesson's procedure) solicits directed to boys and girls: the teacher feedback on the student responses to her solicits; the teacher's comments, and the teacher's responses to the students initiated solicits.

Sunderland (1996), as indicated in Sunderland (1998), employed interview to collect qualitative data from teachers and students to supplement the quantitative data gathered through classroom observation. Using interview data, Sunderland examined the quantitative findings of the classroom interactions in the light of the quantitative ones obtained from the students', the teacher's and her own perceptions of gender in the class. Other studies were made recently by Farooq(2000) and Stiles(2002). Farook examined a male teacher's behavior in mixed-sex Japanese EFL classrooms focusing on feedback, such as affective feedback, and cognitive feedback as used by Zahorik (1970), Opp Beckman and Kinghammer (2006), ESL Glossary (2005). In these works affective feedback was considered as feedback that is used to encourage or discourage learner's responding behaviour whereas cognitive feedback is used in correcting target language forms. Affective feedback in the works cited was also classified as positive, negative and neutral and the cognitive feedback was considered as positive and negative.

Local Studies on Gender in EFL Classrooms

Semunesh (1997) studied the correlation between level of assertiveness and students' participation in interactive work in EFL classroom. The study involved 144 (72 male and 72 female) students from three government and two private secondary schools in Addis Ababa. She used a standard assertiveness inventory, classroom observation, questionnaire and interview to collect data. Lezashwork's (1997) study was the other study to be mentioned in a similar context. Lezashwork studied teachers' attitude towards treatment of female students. Ten female teachers and 30 male teachers who, at the time, were teaching English in grades 9, 10 and 11 were involved in Lezashowrk's study. Teacher inventory scales and classroom observations were used to collect data for the study. The findings showed no difference in teachers' treatment of male and female students.

Gaps in the Literature

In the meta-analysis made by Kelly (1988), studies on teacher sex could not arrive at any definite conclusion. And as in the case of studies by Yepez(1994) where one teacher interacted differently with male and female students, the others(i.e two female and male) gave equal attention to both sexes. This may imply that the role of male and female teachers in EFL classrooms requires further investigation, which this study undertakes in its own way.

Methods

Sincliar and Coulthard's IRF Model

The model was developed as a tool for systematic study of classroom discourse, concentrating mainly on interactions between the teacher and individual students. This model consists of five ranks: *lesson*, *transaction*, *exchange*, *move* and *act*, all related to one another (Willis, 1992 cited in Atkins, 2001). The *ranks* are hierarchical in nature with *lesson* being the

largest unit and act the smallest. Sinclair and Coulthard identified twenty-one different classes of *act*, which combine to make five classes of *move*. These are the *framing* and *focusing* moves, which combine to make *boundary exchanges* and *opening; responding* and *follow up* moves, which combine to make *teaching exchanges*. A number of these exchanges combine to make *transactions*, which combine to make the *lesson.* Atkins (2001) provides us with a useful diagrammatic representation of the Initiation-Response- Follow-up (IRF) model, which the present research has adapted and modified. Transactions do not have a structure, expressed in terms of exchanges. Boundaries of transactions are typically marked by frames whose realizations at the level of form is largely limited to words like *ok*, *well*, *right*, *now* and *good* uttered with strong stress, highly falling intonation, followed by short pauses.

Subjects

Sinclair and Coutthard's IRF model of discourse analysis was used to analyze the data used in this study. The Subjects of this study were conveniently sampled EFL teachers at one of the secondary schools in Addis Ababa city, Bole Senior Secondary School, located southeast of the city. Three male and three female teachers (referred to hereafter as MT_1., MT_2, MT_3 ,and FT_1, FT_2, and FT_3 in six grade 10 EFL classes at the secondary school were observed and video-recorded. The teachers were well experienced, with a minimum of ten years of service (see Table 1). Nine lessons by five female teachers and four male teachers were observed and video recorded. However, three of the lessons were discarded (i.e. lessons taught by one male and two female teachers) because we were not able to generate the required data from them as a result of the absence of much interaction during the lessons. All the recorded lessons were taught during the make-up classes scheduled to complete the course materials and to prepare the students for the secondary school leaving examination. This decision was made on the basis of the feedback gained from the visits made before commencing the actual observation.

Table 1: Qualification and Experience of Sample Teachers

Teachers	Qualification	Experience
FT_1	BA in English	24 years
FT_2	BA in English	25 years
FT_3	BA in English	33 years
MT_1	BA in English	10 years
MT_2	BA in English	14 years
MT_3	BA in English	20 years

There were 276 students (i.e. 126 males and 150 females) in the six sections, aged 16 to 17. No primary test was conducted to evaluate students' English language proficiency level.

Instruments

Observation

Nine lessons taught by nine teachers (four male and five female teachers) were observed two times for each teacher. None of the first observations was video recorded. The main purpose of these visits was not to collect data as such but mainly to familiarize students with the presence of an observer, the recording equipment to be used and the person who would be filming the lessons.

As regards the actual recording, the nine lessons observed the second time were all video recorded. Of these nine lessons, three lessons, as reported above, were discarded. With the exception of one, the remaining lessons were recorded roughly entirely. One of the recorded lessons is considerably shorter than the rest because some unrelated details were left out. In spite of its being short, it has not been excluded from the data. There were lessons that dealt with similar topics. These lessons were considered in the study because different teachers presented them to students of different sections.

The current study did not use a real time coding scheme such as Flint (as was used by Elizabeth, 2003), FIAS (as was used by Yeshimebet, 1997) and INTERESECT (as was used by Yepez, 1994). This was because these techniques have limitations that affect the reliability and validity of the findings of the study. With regard to this, Farooq (2000, P. 24) writes, "Although such schemes can be useful for collecting a large amount of data, they may lead to questionable reliability of data since real–time coding is unlikely to permit multiple coding". Allwright (1988) also gives an overview of some of the weaknesses in collecting data when the observer is under time pressure as the case, for example, is in using Flanders coding system that makes the observer do everything within three seconds.

Thus, this study, the Sinclair and Couthard's (1995) revised model (the original taken from Atkins, 2001) was adapted for transcribing the video-recorded classroom lessons. Some modification was needed because first, the model was not primarily developed to examine gender discrimination in spoken classroom discourse. Second, classroom discourse should also include not only teacher but student initiating talk. Third, the researcher hoped to transcribe the data to decide the categories required in the research questions. Fourth, the model and its adaptations were widely and successfully used with in and outside ESL/EFL classrooms establishing the reliability and applicability of the model (see Chaudron, 1977; Malouf, 1995; Atkins, 2001; Farooq, 2000). Fifth, as can be learned from the literature review, no local studies have employed the model for a study like this.

In the adapted model, the moves are divided into I(initiation), R(response) and F(Follow-up or Feedback) in terms of individuals male and female teacher, and in terms of male and female student moves represented by the abbreviations MT(Male teacher), FT(Female teacher), MS(Male Student) and FS(Female Student). For Example, MS-informing indicates or represents male student informing/responding. The categories from the lesson recorded were coded depending on the line of moves, the acts, move type (i.e whether the move is for example MS/FS- informing or academic (AC) and non-academic (NAC); the length (i.e, number of words uttered in the interaction by MT/FT, and MS/FS and the wait-time for the male and female students. Thus, the conceptual framework used in this study (See Figures 1 and 2) was adapted from Atkins (2001)

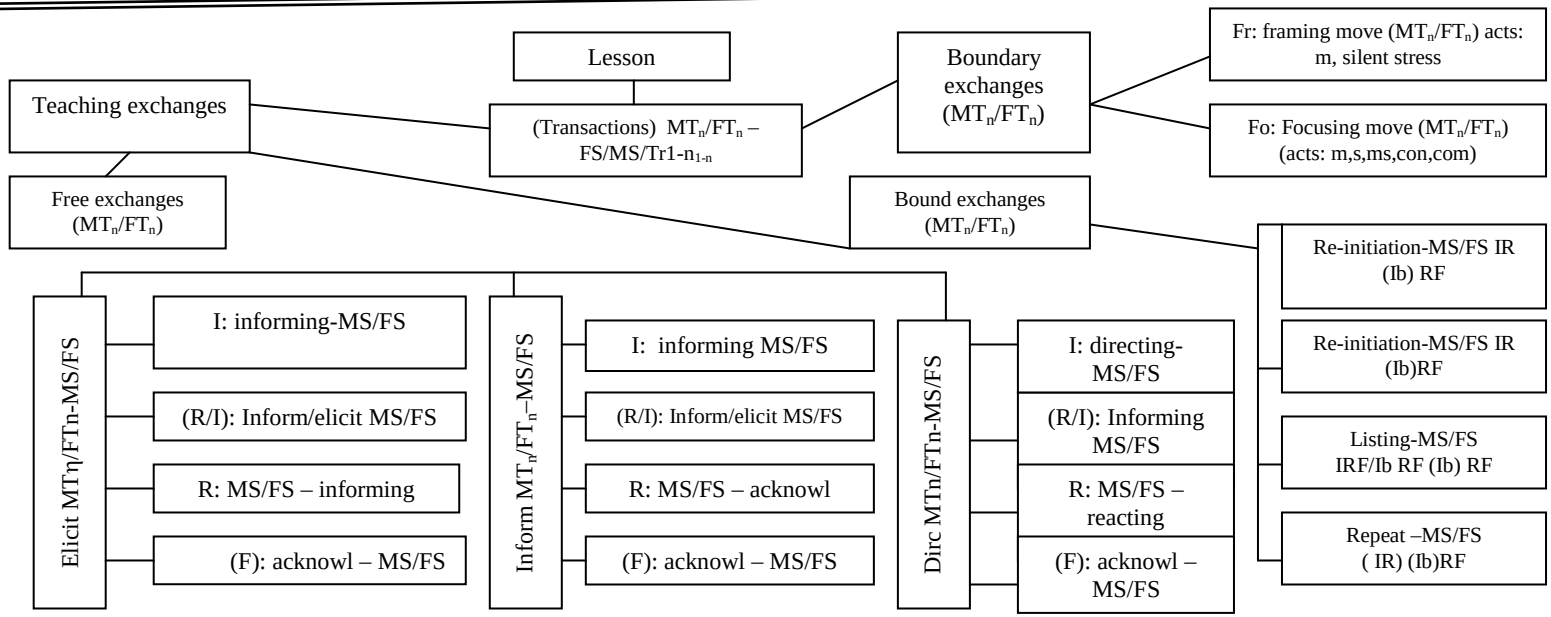

Figure 1: Adaptation of Sinclair and Colthard the Five Rank Scales (Atkins, 2001)

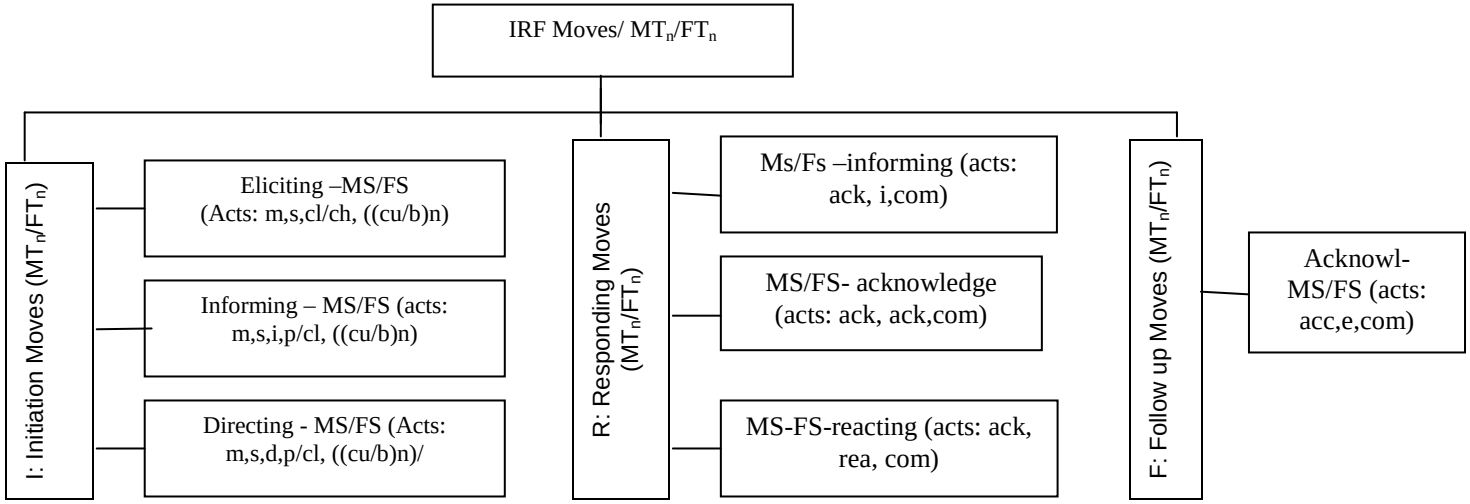

Figure 2: Adaptation of Sinclair and Colthard 'Initiation' 'Responding' and 'Follow-up moves' with their corresponding acts (Atkins, 2001).

The IRF moves are divided in terms of the interaction made with an individual male or female student which is indicated by letters MS and FS respectively. Based on the adapted acts, six 40-minute lessons were transcribed and coded. After deciding the boundary moves from the acts that realize them, the whole transcript was divided into exchange from the relationships that the utterances have with each other. Analysis was made in terms of the type and structure of moves at 'initiation', 'responding' and 'follow up' moves.

In each exchange, the MTn/FTn moves were categorized into different types as indicated in the diagrammatical model shown in Figures 1 and 2. For example, the 'I' move was divided into eliciting, informing, and directing; the "R" move was categorized as an individual male or female student informing, acknowledging and reacting move types. Borrowing the definition from Sunderland (1996), cited in Sunderland (1998), the initiating move was divided into the academic (AC) and non-academic (NA) moves. The following is an example of initiating moves directed to female students from the lesson transcript depending on the utterances in the preceding initiation move. In line 003, the FT directed her initiating move to a female student by calling her name but in line 005, she is still re-enforcing the FS to respond to the initiation directed in the preceding initiation moves.

Line of moves	*act*	*type of move*
003 FT (I) Okay, Mariam	el	eliciting FS, ACFS
005 FT (Ib) Yes, yes	el	eliciting- FS, ACFS

Different processes were followed in coding and analyzing teacher's questions and feedback. As indicated in the conceptual framework, it was clearly shown that the eliciting move was realized by the acts "el", "L" and "ch". In these eliciting moves, the first two moves were coded and analyzed as open and closed questions respectively. As regards the question types, display and referential were coded and analyzed on the basis of the definitions borrowed from the literature (see for example, Liao(2001) and

Cundel(2001). For example the following points taken from the transcript show how these question types were coded and analyzed. In line 071, the teacher elicits from the student an already known answer (the teacher knows what the answer is and what it must be) but expects from the learner. This was made perhaps to check the learner's understanding of the information required. This type of question was coded and analyzed as a display question. In line 078, it is understood from the statement that the learner has a shirt to put on in the classroom. But the teacher did not see the learner doing that. This was made perhaps student did not know the correct answer to the question raised. Such questions were coded and analyzed as referential questions.

Line of moves	act	symbol move's type
071 FT (I) Can you correct him?	el	eliciting –FS (CQFS, DQFS)
078 FT (I) Where is your shirt?	el	eliciting –MS (OQMS, RQMS)

In coding and analyzing the "Follow-up" move, the definitions and explanations used in the literature were followed. The affective feedback was seen from the point of view of whether the feedback was meant to weaken or strengthen the learner's behaviour of responding whereas the cognitive feedback was seen in relation to the teacher's giving information related to the target language forms. The following examples were quoted to demonstrate how the affective and cognitive feedbacks were coded and analyzed. In lines 007 and 038 (*Lesson Two*), the teacher is strengthening and weakening the responding behaviour of the learners respectively by using the expressions 'Thank you very much' and 'surrounded by earth?' This is because these two expressions have different values and implications for facilitating learning. In the cases of lines 044 and 061, the teacher is weakening the wrong responding behaviour of the learner using the bold expressions like "no". At the same time his feedback was in relation to the target language form. Hence, they were coded and analyzed as negative affective and negative cognitive feedback respectively.The utterance in the "Follow-up" move of line 067 was coded and analyzed as

Neutral Affective Feedback (NAF). This happened to be so because it was a simple acceptance of the behavior of the learner reflected in the responding move.

Line of moves	*act*	*move type*
007 MT_1 (F) Thank you very much	ack	acknowl-MS (+AFMS)
038 MT_1 (F) surrounded by earth?	ack	acknowl-MS (-AFMS)
044 MT_3 (F) Bermin? No	ack	acknow–MS(-CFMS, -AFMS)
061 MT_3 (F) No, in fact you are using adjective form because the Burundian capital is Bujumbura. So, Burundian is an adjective because it modifies the noun capital. So, you are using the adjective form.	ack	acknowl-MS(-CFMS, -AFMS)
067 MT_3 (F) Noun, yes. He is a Brazilian here you have attached 'ian' okay.	ack	acknowl–MS(+CFMS, NAFMS)

The wait-time was recorded using a digital stopwatch. To raise the reliability of time-coding, four (two male and two female) postgraduate TEFL students were made to code on individual basis after they were given orientations. The recording was done four times independently in relation to the display and referential questions directed to the individual male or female student by playing the video wherever necessary. Accordingly, the average wait time was calculated. Then, the average wait time results obtained from the four recorders were added up to obtain the average of the four recordings. Finally, the total wait time (in seconds) in relation to the display and referential questions was used in the study. It was decided only to focus on the wait-time between the time of directing the question to male or female student and the responding of the learner.

The last point that should be made clear is how the coding of students' responding moves was made. As indicated in the adapted model (Figures 1 and 2), the students' responding moves occurred by informing, reacting and acknowledging. Some examples from the transcript are quoted here (Appendix-A, Lessons one, three, Five).

003 FS (R) defining relative clause defines nouns	FS-informing
057 MS (R) NV	MS-reacting
112 MS (R) Okay	MS- acknowledge

Results and Discussion

Observation Results

The analyzed data were transferred into tables that indicated the findings. The findings were the total counts of the codes designated for the categories. These were analyzed and interpreted with addition of ideas obtained from the personal observation of the actual classroom. The analyses were made in terms of the amount of instances female/male students received – whether or not each received more or less than the fair share. The fair share of male students was 46% and that of female students was 54%. Thus, if females students obtained more than the actual share, (i.e., more than 54%) it means that they received a share which is more than their fair share. On the contrary, if they got a proportion which is less than 54%, it means that they received less than their fair share. Accordingly, then, the difference between this actual share and the fair share was used to compare whether it was male or female students that received more or fewer instances of interaction. The final step was to examine the significance of the differences obtained in terms of proportion. To do this, two different tests were employed. The first one was chi-square used in two different ways i.e. one, for a frequency greater than five in each cell, the formula of chi-square of association/ independence was used. The formula used was, thus, $X^2 = \sum (f_O - f_E)^2 / f_E$. In short, the square of the differences of frequency obtained and frequency expected divided by the frequency expected for each cell and

summing up the results to obtain the total X^2 value. Second, if the frequency obtained in the cell was less than five, Yates (corrected) chi-square formula was used. The formula was used for all cells of the labeled data, not only for cells with low frequencies. The formula was, thus, X^2(corrected) $=\sum (|f_O - f_E| - 0.5)^2/f_{O)}$. The second was the t-test method employed to see the significance level of the findings in the length of utterances, and in the wait time.

In order to highlight certain aspects of attention of male and female EFL teachers as groups, different points were analyzed: teacher initiating move, student responding move, teacher feedback move and teacher wait-time.

Initiating Moves

These initiating teachers' moves were analyzed from two perspectives. The first one was by categorizing the moves into two classes: the academic and the non-academic moves (the classification adopted from Sunderland, 1996 cited in Sunderland, 1998).The second one was teachers' questioning: the display and referential questions that are available in the literature.

Academic and Non-Academic Moves

As indicated earlier, for the purpose of this study academic (AC) moves were moves concerned with the content of the lesson whereas non-academic moves were moves that were not concerned with the content of the lesson.

As shown in Table 2, there were 286 instances and 2138 length of utterances of academic and non-academic moves over the six lessons. Of the 286 instances, 121 moves were made by male teachers and 165 by female teachers. Of the 121 moves made by male teachers 118 and 3 moves were respectively academic and non-academic. From the 165 moves made by female teachers, 156 were academic whereas the remaining 9 moves were non-academic. The general picture showed that both male and female teachers made more academic moves in classroom interaction while the non-academic moves were fewer all over the six lessons. Of the total

length of utterances of AC moves (i.e. 2064), 722 utterances were used by male teachers whereas female teachers used 1342 utterances. From the non-academic moves, 6 utterances were used by males and 68 were used by females.

Table 2: Share of Interaction of Moves by Gender

Teachers' moves			Male Students			Female Students			Total	X^2 a and t-test obtained
			Total interaction	Actual share by gender (%)	Amount of instances more /fewer than the fair share (%)	Total interaction	Actual share of interaction (%)	Amount of instances more /less than the fair share (%Difference between actual share and fair values obtained share (%)		
AC	MT	f	71	60	14	47	40	14	118	X^2=9.87 *
		l	402	56	10	320	44	10	722	t=.823
	FT	f	72	46	0	84	54	0	156	X^2=0.026
		l	646	48	2	696	52	2	1342	t=.2470
	T	f	143			131			274	
		l	1048			1016			2064	
NAC	MT	f	3	100	54	0	0	54	3	X^2=3.38
		l	6	100	54	0	0	54	6	t=1.061
	FT	f	8	89	43	1	11	42	9	X^2=5.513 *
		l	62	91	45	6	9	45	68	t=1.018
	T	f	11			1			12	
		l	68			6			74	
GT		f	154			132			286	
		l	1116			1022			2138	

Note: The fair share for males was 46% and for females 54%. ***** *Significant at 5% level*

As indicated in Table 2 above, male students received 14% more instances than their fair share and female students received 14% fewer moves than would their fair share be from male teachers' AC moves. In the case of length of utterances, also male students received 10% utterances more than

their fair share and female students received 10% less than their fair share. There was a significant difference in the attention male teachers gave to male and female students (x^2 (1) = 9.87) at alpha 5% level. Male students received more attention from male teachers than female students. However, in terms of the length of utterances, the t-value (t(4)=0.823) indicated that the difference was not significant at 5% level. In academic moves, male and female students received their fair shares from female teachers. In the case of length of utterances, male students received 2% more utterances than their share and females received 2% less than their fair share. The result was not statistically significant both in instances (x^2 (1) = 0.247) and in the length of utterances (t=0.247) of AC move. Male and female students did not receive different attention from female teachers both in instances and in length of utterances of AC moves.

As indicated in Table 2, in male teachers' NAC moves, male students received 54% more instances and 54% more length of utterances of non-academic male teachers' attention than their fair share. However, female students received 54% fewer interactions than their fair share. The chi-square statistical analysis (x^2(1) =3.38), however, showed that the difference in male teachers' attentions to male and female students was not significant at 5% level. Similarly, the value of t-test (t(4)=1.061) was less than the critical table value. Hence, it was concluded that male teachers did not give different attention to male and female students both in instances and length of utterances of non-academic moves. When it comes to the female teachers' non-academic moves, males received 43% more instances and 45% more length of utterances than their fair share whereas female students received 43% fewer instances and 45% fewer lengths than their fair share. There was a significant difference (x^2(1) =5.513) at alpha 5% level in the instances of interaction. However, the t-test analysis (t(4)=1.018) for the length of utterances was less than the critical table value.

In summary, with regard to the teachers' academic moves, the results showed that male teachers paid more attention to male students in the number of moves they made but in the case of the length of utterances,

there was no significant difference. The differences in the male teachers' AC moves might be because of the different expectations male teachers have towards male and female students' contributions. On the contrary, female teachers showed no preference in their attention both in instances and length of AC moves. However, they made more non-academic moves with male students than female students in the instances of interaction. This is consistent with studies on gender equity in the classroom that have shown repeatedly that male students receive more interactions and more time per interaction (see Brophy and Good, 1990; Sadker and Sadker, 1989, 1990, 1992; Tannen 1991; Wilkinson and Marret, 1985 all cited in Yepez, 1994). With the particular points addressed in this study (the academic and non-academic moves), the result obtained in instances of AC moves was inconsistent with the studies by Sunderland (1996) cited in Sunderland (1998) and Farooq (2000), which found that male students received more teachers' attention. Nevertheless, the question one may raise could be "what led to these differences in this particular study?'' However, we may comment on why there were differences in instances of non-academic moves of female teachers' attention considering what actually happened in the lesson. More (even almost all) of the teachers' non-academic moves were with male students because of some negative behaviors they reflected. Only a few students (e.g. 1 student in FT_2 class, 1 student in MT_3 class and 1 student in MT_2 class) misbehaved. To illustrate this, an extract was quoted from FT_2 class (*Appendix A, Lesson Three).*

076 FT_2 (I) Is there any problem? (Looking at a boy from a back seat with a warning voice)
078 FT_2 (I) Where is your shirt?
080 FT_2 (I) Why don't you wear it?
081 FT_2 (I) Why don't you sit properly?
082 FT_2 (I) Sit properly! You are in the class. I am telling you.

Sunderland (1996), cited in Sunderland (1998), focused on teachers' non-academic solicits in terms of routine and disciplinary actions. The study reported that the greater proportion of boys' receiving disciplinary solicits

was approaching statistical significance at 5% level. As indicated by Sunderland, a similar finding was reported by Webster (1993). In the present study also the large proportion of female teachers' instances of non-academic moves were directed to male students.

It appears important to mention Kelly's study (1988) in this context. In the meta-analysis of 81 studies Kelly (1988) asked whether the gender differences in the studies were due to the presence of a few disruptive boys or the presence of fewer girls than boys in the class. In the present Ethiopian study, however, the number of females was greater (i.e. 54% of the gender representation). Because of this and because of this, than the number of boys (i.e. 46% of the gender representation) the result of the study could not be attributed to the smaller number of girls in the classes observed. From the transcript, it was observed that the difference emerged because of a few disruptive male students (i.e. one of the ideas in Kelly's meta-analysis) in the case of NAC moves. Swann and Graddol (1988) also stated the reason why the teachers' gazes stay in one direction: continually to lookout the disruption. Though there were no serious problems of misbehaviors of boys in the classes observed for this study, three boys who showed disruptive behavior received the teachers' attention in non-academic moves. The differences here were related to the disciplinary teacher talk.

Teachers' Questions

The current study looked at the questions directed to male and female students. The questions were classified into two: *display* (DQ) and *referential* questions (RQ). Display questions were treated as questions on which the teacher could evaluate the answerer whether the answers were wrong or right whereas referential questions were considered as questions about whose answers the teacher was not sure.

Table 3: Share of Interaction of Questions by Gender

Question Types			Male Students			Female Students			Total	x^2 and t-test obtained
			Total interaction	Actual share (%)	Amount of instances more /fewer than the fair share (%)	Total interaction	Actual share (%)	Amount of instances more /fewer than the fair share(%)		
DQ	MT	f	71	60	14	47	40	14	118	X^2=9.87 *
		l	402	56		320	44	10	722	t=0.823
	FT	f	72	46	0	84	54	0	156	X^2=0.026
		l	646	48	2	696	52	2	1342	t=0.247
	T	f	143			131			274	
		l	1048			1016			2064	
RQ	MT	f	3	100	54	0	0	54	3	X^2=3.38
		l	6	100	54	0	0	54	6	t=2.800 *
	FT	f	5	83	37	1	17	37	6	X^2=1.50
		l	34	85	39	6	15	39	10	t=1.472
	T	f	8			1			9	
		l	40			6			46	
G T		f	151			132			283	
		l	1083			1022			2110	

*(Note: The fair share for males was 46% and for females 54%) * Significant at 5% level*

Male teachers directed more DQs to male students than to female students. The result was statistically significant (x^2=9.87). In the case of referential questions, however, the result was not statistically significant (x^2=3.38) at alpha 5% level (*see Table* 3 *above*). In the case of female teachers, however, the result did not show a significant difference both in directing DQs ($x^2(1)$=0.026) and RQs($x^2(1)$=1.5) to male and female students. The result in the length of utterance in AC moves was not significant. The obtained t-values were respectively 0.823 and 0.247 for males and females.

These were much less than the critical table values in male and female teachers' directing display questions. In male teachers' cases, the t-test analysis for the length of utterances (t=2.800) showed a significant difference. Thus, the finding suggested that male teachers paid more attention to male students than they paid to female students in the length of utterances. Yet, one might ask to know the circumstances in which differences appeared. Observation of the actual classrooms revealed that the differences were because of the behavioral criticisms directed to male students.

Responding Moves

Students' responding moves were analyzed on the basis of questions directed to individual male and female students and the responses they gave to questions directed to the class.

Table 4: Share of Interaction of Students Responding Moves by Gender

Male and Female Students Responses		Male Teachers			Female Teachers			Total	X^2 and t-test obtained
		Total Interaction	Actual share	Share received more/less than the fair share (%)	Total Interaction	Actual share	Share received more/less than the fair share(%)		
MS	f	82	57	11	63	43	3	145	X^2=6.831 *
	l	830	57	11	616	43	3	1446	t= 2.846 *
FS	f	54	41	13	78	59	3	132	X^2=1.10
	l	436	27	27	1185	73	19	1621	t= -1.536

*(Note: The fair share of males was 46% and that of females was 54%) * Significant at 5% level*

As indicated in Table 4 male students, in their responding moves with male teachers, gained 11% more instances and 11% more length of utterances

than their fair shares. However, in their moves with female teachers they received 3% fewer interactions and 3% fewer length of utterances than their share. In their responding moves to male teachers' initiating moves, female students received 13%, fewer interactions in amount and length of utterances. However in their responding moves with female teachers, they received 3% more interactions and 19% more length of utterances. The result in male students' instances of responding moves to male and female teachers' initiated talk showed significance ($x^2(1)=6.831$). But female students' instances of responding moves in reaction to male and female teachers' initiation showed insignificance ($x^2(1)=1.10$). This study indicated that male students talk more than female students with male teachers. This finding is consistent with the findings of previous studies (see Sunderland, 1998). In her study of 1996, as indicated in Sunderland (1998), she pointed out that girls produced shorter solicits than boys.

The results of the study were consistent. The results of this study are consistent with the earlier findings (French, 1984; Swann and Graddol, 1988; Davt and Clarke, 1988) that indicated male students receiving more teachers' attention in giving responses. Dark and Clarke (1988) in particular noted that despite the fact that boys received more attention from male teach in their stud, there were many boys in the class who did not take active parting the responding moves. The differences were revealed, however, due to the talkativeness of the sub-groups. In the current study also there were also a few students who received a disproportionate share of the interaction with teachers in the classes observed. These were the students who were frequently involved in talk with the teacher.

Feedback Moves

In this study, feedback was seen as *affective* and *cognitive* (i.e. classification made by Brown, 1994, cited in Farooq, 1998). Affective feedback was seen from a point of view of its effect on encouraging or discouraging communication. Further, affective feedback was seen classified into three. The first one was positive affective feedback. This means that positive comment about student work, such as excellent, very good, good, good job, I appreciate were taken as examples. The second was negative affective feedback. A statement that an answer is inaccurate or a behavior is inappropriate is an example of negative affective feedback. Some expressions that involved high tone, such as *No, Is that? A*lso fall in this category. And the third one was the neutral affective feedback. For example, comments such as *aha, okay, yes*, which were equivalent with praise, criticism and acceptance can be mentioned here. Such comments acknowledge that student answers are acceptable (Sadker and Sadker, 1986; Sadker and Sadker, 1997). Moreover, the cognitive feedback was seen in relation to feedback provided on target language forms.

Affective Feedback

As shown in Table 4, there were 203 instances and 2365 length of utterances in male and female teachers' affective feedback to male and female students' reactions in the classroom interaction. Out of these instances, 85 instances that had 1016 length of utterances and 72 instances that had 863 lengths of utterances were positive, negative and neutral feedback respectively. Male students received 16% more instances and 26% more length of utterances than their fair share whereas female students received 16% fewer instances and 26% fewer length of utterances than their fair share in +AF from male teachers. In the case of the amount ($x2(1) =2.592$) and length ($t=1.486$) of AF feedback male and female students received from male teachers, the result was not statistically significant at 5% level. Hence, the study concluded that there were no differences in the amounts and length of utterances of +AF that males and females received

from male teachers. With regard to female teachers' attentions, males received 5% fewer instances and 2% fewer length of words than their fair share whereas females received 5% more instances and 2% more length of utterances than their fair shares. The statistical analyses of the data revealed that there were no significant difference at 5% level both in the case of frequency ($x^2(1) = 0.315$) of feedback and the length of utterances(t=0.379). It, then, was concluded that male and female students did not receive different attentions from female teachers both in terms of instances of +AF and in the length of utterances.

Table 5: Share of Interaction in Affective Feedback b Gender

Question Types			Male Students			Female Students			Total	x2 and t-test obtained
			Total interaction	Actual share %	Amount received more/less than the fair share (%)	Total interaction	Actual share	Amount received more/less than the fair share (%)		
+AF	MT	f	21	62	16	13	38	16	34	X^2=2.592
		l	230	72	26	91	28	26	321	t=1.486
	FT	f	21	41	5	30	59	5	51	X^2=0.315
		l	305	44	2	390	56	2	695	t=0.379
	T	f	42			43			85	
		l	535			481			1016	
-AF	MT	f	13	68	22	6	32	22	19	X^2=3.38
		l	138	57	11	105	43	11	243	t=2.924 *
	FT	f	16	59	13	11	41	13	27	X^2=2.40
		l	104	43	3	139	57	3	243	t=-.296
	T	f	29			17			46	
		l	242			244			486	
NAF	MT	f	17	53	7	15	47	7	32	X^2=0.51
		l	138	59	13	96	41	13	234	t=0.387
	FT	f	17	43	4	23	58	4	40	X^2=0.001
		l	303	48	2	326	52	2	629	t=0.090
	T	f	34			38			72	
		l	441			422			863	
GT		f	105			99			203	
		l	1218			1147			2365	

(Note: The fair share for males was 46% and for females 54%) Significant at 5% level*

As indicated in the Table, male students received 22% more instances and 11% more length of utterances than their fair share, and female students received 22% fewer instances and 11% fewer length of utterance than their representation by gender in –AF from male teachers. When the result was tested at 5% level, it was found to be insignificant in instances $x^2(1) =3.38$) and significant in the length of utterances (t(4) =2.942). It can be understand from this that male students and female students did not receive significantly different attention from male teachers in instances of –AF but male students received more attention in the case of the length of utterance.

In the case of female teachers' negative feedback (criticism), male students received 13% more instances and 3% fewer length of utterances than their fair share by gender. With regard to the amount ($x^2(1) =2.40$) and length of –AF that male and female students received from female teachers, the result was insignificant (t=-.296) at 5% level. In connection with neutral affective feedback, male students received 7% more instances and 13% more length of utterances, than their representations by gender from male teachers' NAF. The results were not statistically significant both in instances ($x^2(1)=0.51$) and in the case of length of utterances (t=0.387). Thus, male and female students did not receive different attention from male teachers both in instances and in length of utterances. From female teachers, male students received 4% fewer instances and 2% more length of utterances of NAF*. The result was not statistically significant ($x^2(1) = 0.01$) at 5% level for the amount and length (t=0.090) of NAF male and female students received from female teachers. The finding suggests that male and female students did not receive different attention in the instances and length of utterances of NAF from female teachers.

The earlier studies indicated that girls receive fewer academic contacts, less praise and less constructive feedback (Sadker and Sadker, 1986, 1997; Stiles, 2002; Farooq, 2000). However, in Sunderland's (1996) study, cited in Sunderland (1998), it was indicated that the distribution of feedback types did not show variation with gender. In contrast to the earlier findings, then, it was male students who received more negative feedback in the current study,

* Ultterenaces of NAF.

especially from male teachers in length of utterances male and female students did not receive different attention from female teachers.

Cognitive Feedback

As indicated in Table 6, male students received 37% more instances and 36% more lengths of +CF whereas female students received 37% fewer instances and 36% fewer length of utterances than their representation by gender from male teachers. The result was statistically significant in instances of +CF ($x^2(1) = 6.94$) but insignificant in the length of utterances (t=0.856).

Table 6: Share of Interaction in Cognitive Feedback by Gender

Teachers' moves			Male Students			Female Students			Totals	X^2 and t-test obtained
			Total interaction	Actual share	Amount received more/less than the fair share(%)	Total interaction	Actual share	Amount received more/less than the fair share(%)		
+CF	MT	f l	10 81	83 82	37 36	2 18	170 18	37 36	12 99	X^2=6.94 * t=0.856
	FT	f l	4 77	36 36	10 10	7 137	64 64	10 10	11 214	X^2=0.09 t=-0.555
	T	f l	14 158			8 155			23	
-CF	M T	f l	7 69	78 96	32 50	2 3	22 4	32 50	9 72	X^2=2.813 t=1.118
	FT	f l	19 142	48 47	2 1	11 157	52 53	2 1	21 299	X^2=0.000 t=-0.118
	T	f l	17 211			13 160			30 371	
GT		f l	31 369			22 315			53 684	

*(Note: Male students' fair share was 46% and females' 54%) *Significant at 5% level*

As shown in Table 6 , from the total +CF provided by female teachers, male students received 10% fewer instances and 10% fewer length of utterances while female students received 10% more instances and 10% more length of utterances than their share by gender. The result was not statistically significant both in frequency of interaction ($x^2(1) =0.09$) and in length of utterances (t=-0.555) at alpha 5% level. In other words, female teachers did not treat male and female students differently. The finding of this study was inconsistent with the finding of the study reported by Farooq (2000). Farooq reported that teachers gave more attention to male students than to females in providing +CF. But it was consistent, with the finding by Sunderland (1996) cited in Sunderland (1998).The subjects of Sinderlands study did not show variation in gender in their provision of feedback.

Another aspect of feedback considered was the provision of negative cognitive feedback. As shown in Table 4.5, male students received 32% more instances and 50% more length of utterances than their fair share from male teachers. In addition, they received 2% more instances and 1% more length of utterances from female teachers. Female students, however, received 32% fewer instances and 50% fewer length of utterances from male teachers and 2% fewer instances and 1% fewer length of utterances than their fair share by gender. The result was statistically insignificant both the in instances ($x^2(1) =2.813$) and in the length of utterances (t=1.118) male and female students received from male teachers. Similarly, the result was insignificant ($x^2(1) =0$) and t (3) =-.118) in the case of female teachers' attention.

Wait Time

As indicated in Table 4.6 male teachers waited for 1.3 seconds for the 'average male' while they waited for 0.6 seconds for the 'average female'. Thus, male teachers seemed to give more time to think for males than for females. The analysis of its significance (t=2.864) showed that the result was greater than the critical value. Hence, it was concluded that male teachers gave more wait time to male students than to female students to respond to

the questions directed to them. The average wait time for male and female students was 1.3 and 1.2 respectively. Female teachers however showed a relatively equal attention to both sex groups. The obtained value of t-test (0.858) also indicated that the result was not significant at 5% level.

Table 7: Share of Interaction in Wait Time by Gender

Questions Type		Male Teachers		Female Teachers		Total	
		TWT in sec	Mean for the 'average male/female'	TWT in sec	Mean for the 'average male/female'	TWT in sec	Mean for the 'average male/female'
DQ	MS	159	1.3	162	1.3	321	2.6
	FS	97	0.6	177	1.2	255	1.8
	T	256	1.9	339	2.5	595	4.4
	t-test obtained	2.864 **		2.19			
		TWT	Mean for the 'average male/female'	TWT	Mean for the 'average male/female'	TWT	Mean for the 'average male/female'
RQ	MS	6	0.05	7	0.1	13	0.15
	FS	0	0	1	0.01	1	0.01
	T	6	0.05	8	0.11	14	0.16
	t-test obtained	1.565		- .429			

Concerning the referential questions, the average male got 0.1 seconds whereas the average female got 0.01 seconds from female teachers. The calculated t-value (t=0.429) showed that the result was insignificant at 5% level. Male teachers waited for the 'average male' for 0.05 seconds. There were no RQs directed to female students.

During lesson observation, it was noted that most of the questions were fired so rapidly that the students barely had time to think. This was not considered as troublesome when the questions sought short responses or factual information. However, the students were floundering when they were asked more complex questions rapidly. The majority of teacher wait time was 1 second and 2 seconds.

Although it is important to keep classroom discussion moving at a brisk pace, sometimes teachers pushed forward too rapidly in the lessons observed. Slowing down at key places during classroom discussion can usually improve the effectiveness and quality of classroom responses. A study by Rowe (1986) shows that teachers typically wait only 1 second or less for a student response after asking a question.

Research indicates that teachers give more wait time to students for whom they hold higher expectations (Howe, 1997). A high achieving student is more likely to get more time to think than a low achieving student. If we do not expect much from students, we will not get much. It should, however, be known that wait time can be a big help in promoting equity.

Conclusions

In the teacher-learner interaction examined in this study, male students received more attention from male teachers in the frequency of AC moves, frequency of display questions, and amount of wait time in display questions.

In the case of length of utterances also there were some areas that showed statistical significance (i.e. in the length of utterances in RQs, -AF, in getting chances to respond to male teachers' initiating moves). It may be concluded that male teachers gave more attention to male students than they gave to female students in the areas indicated.

Female teachers seemed to show equal attention to male and female students almost in all types of the interaction examined except in the case of instances of non-academic moves, which indicated significant result($x^2(1)=5.515$).

Male students received more frequent($x^2(1) =6.831$) and longer ($t(4) =2.846$) interactional time with male teachers in responding moves whereas female students did not have different interactional opportunities with either male or

female teachers. As regards the factors that affect interaction, teachers' expectations and the sex of the learner found to be determinant.

In sum, the findings reported in the present study do not differ much from the findings noted in many of the studies reviewed in this study.

Implications for Classroom Practice

Focusing on the findings in this study and the previous works, it is possible to state that there is a tendency for teachers to give different attentions to male and female students. Some attempts, therefore, need to be made to make classroom environment conducive for all students irrespective of sex.This is because a chilly climate significantly affects the learning opportunities of the discriminated group of students(Dickman, 1993). To make the classroom climate attractive to male and female students, scholars suggest different strategies. Of the different strategies suggested, one that needs mentioning here is related to teacher expectations (a determinant factor identified in the present study).

Thus, the researchers believe that there are different possible ways for teachers to keep equity in mixed–sex classrooms:

- Teachers have to be flexible in directing their questions (i.e. they have to be aware of the different sex groups in classroom).
- They need to engage in constant appraisal of their own behavior in order to make sure that their behavior does not affect the interaction of either gender.
- Teachers (especially male teachers') should remind themselves that whatever move (action) they make with one of the groups affects other students' perceptions and involvements. This is because different attentions convey different messages to students.
- Teachers should remind themselves that attentions are affected by expectations about male and female students' academic ability. This implies the need to avoid the wrong preset mind about males' and females' ability.

- Teachers should understand that they can make a difference, in breaking the stereotyped and traditional beliefs about male and female students' performances and contributions.
- Teachers should ask their students to evaluate their patterns of the teachers' interaction with students of different sexes.

The current study has shown that there were some discrepancies between teachers' accounts of their treatment, students' perceptions of teachers' treatment and the observed classroom behavior in interaction which the recorded lessons were able to reveal. Thus, one important implication is that teachers can benefit from recording and analyzing the patterns of their interaction lessons. This can alert them to unintended consequences of their behavior in mixed–sex classroom interactions.

Implications for Further Research

In this section we recommend some areas that need to be addressed in future research.

- The wait time for boys and girls in EFL classrooms is the area that has not been studied much. Future studies should look at teachers' wait time between directing the question and nominating students, the pauses between teachers' moves when interacting with male or female students, and other related pauses(especially in relation to male teacher attention to female students and male students. This is because the current study revealed that male teachers' paid more attention to males than to females. This should be done by video-recording the lessons rather than using time–bounded coding systems.
- Teachers' gazes /eye contact and their implications: in the current study, many of the teachers' gazes in AC move were towards students who frequently raised hands to contribute (i.e. towards interactive students), in NAC move towards disruptive students. So, future studies may examine whether the AC moves are made only

with students who raise hands. It is also important to study in the future if the NAC moves are made only with the disruptive male students.

- Male and female students initiating talk can be seen as a sign of learner confidence. The current study indicated that it was only male students who were asking questions and commenting on each others' responses. Female students were participating only in volunteering responses to teacher initiated questions. So, future studies should look at what factors contributed to such differences and the implications of student initiated talk for EFL classrooms.
- The level of difficulty of the display and referential questions directed to males and females is yet another area of research.
- Teacher expectations and the relations these have with gender in English Language learning classroom can also be mentioned as a promising future research area.
- Finally, further research should show the extent to which the findings in this study apply to other school teachers at different grade levels in the country.

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